UGANDA BUREAU OF STATISTICS
AND
MINISTRY OF GENDER LABOUR AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

GENDER ISSUES IN UGANDA:

An analysis of gender based violence, asset ownership and employment.

March 2019

GENDER ISSUES IN UGANDA:

AN ANALYSIS OF

Gender Based Violence,

Asset Ownership

Employment status

FORWARD

Government of Uganda recognises the need to expand opportunities for men, women, boys and girls not only as a human right but also as a means for sustainable inclusive development. This is noted from the gender responsive legal and policy environment aimed at reducing gender inequalities and vulnerabilities across different social, political and economic spheres. Some of the instruments at the international level include the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Platform of Action (BPfA), and the most recent, Global Agenda 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

At national level, gender issues are encompassed under the 2006 Uganda National Gender Policy. These policies have seen Uganda register some progress in reducing gender inequalities and vulnerabilities through social protection programmes like the Uganda Women Entrepreneurship Programme (UWEP), the Youth Livelihoods Programme (YLP), Labour Works Programme, and Social Assistance Grant for Empowerment (SAGE), among others (MGLSD, 2018). While these policies and programmes have expanded opportunities to attain gender equity and equality, gender biases still remain. For instance, the Gender Inequality Index (GII) for Uganda of about 0.565 shows a loss in human development between women and men achievements in all the education, reproductive health and empowerment dimensions (UNDP, 2015).

Gender inequalities limit the ability of women and girls to fully participate in, and benefit from development programmes in Uganda. Formal and informal institutions, such as patriarchy, religion, family, marriage as well as social and cultural practices play a major role in perpetuating gender inequalities in Uganda. Prominent in perpetuating these inequalities are the glaring differences in asset ownership and employment opportunities for women and men, and the ingrained Gender - Based Violence (GBV) – higher among women. These issues are central to this report.

It is against this background that this report provides friendly facts on sex disaggregated information on prominent gender issues on GBV specifically physical and sexual, asset ownership and employment in Uganda. In addition, there are clear interlinkages between GBV, asset ownership and unemployment that drive the gender biases. The subsequent sections discuss the three gender issues of concern covering the status in terms of age, area of residence, education, among others disaggregated by sex over the years. Data in the report was sourced from the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) which is the national statistical body. Specifically, from the Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS), 2012/13 and 2016/17 and the Uganda Demographic Household Survey (UDHS), 2011 and 2016. UBOS and its partners also register appreciation to Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA), in cooperation with Statistics Sweden that offered training to our staff who later produced this report.

James Muwonge
For: Executive Director

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Gender Issues in Uganda: An analysis of Gender-based violence, Asset ownership and Employment status report is a publication compiled by officers from Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development (MoGLSD), Economic Policy Research Centre (EPRC), the Civil Society Budget Advocacy Group (CSBAG) and The United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women). The report provides friendly facts on sex disaggregated information on prominent gender issues on GBV specifically physical and sexual, asset ownership and employment in Uganda. The report will be used by different stakeholders as a basis for identifying gender statistics gaps, guiding planning and decision making at various levels and support advocacy for budget allocation at all levels for the gender issues.

This publication is divided into three major issues which are preceded by a glossary of definitions and general information on Uganda. Data in the report was sourced from the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) specifically, from the Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS), 2012/13 and 2016/17 and the Uganda Demographic Household Survey (UDHS), 2011 and 2016.

Issue one highlighted the prevalence of high levels of physical and sexual gender based violence. Physical violence is on average more common in rural areas irrespective of gender. Using UDHS for 2011 and 2016, the trends show that the magnitude of physical and sexual violence increase with age but decline with education attainment and improve with wealth for both men and women. Observations also reveal that sexual violence is higher among the women despite the reported experiences declining over time. Furthermore, current husband/wife/partner were found to be the leading perpetrators of both physical and sexual violence.

Issue two highlighted low levels of asset ownership amongst women. The deficiency of asset ownership affects both women and men and contributes to gender issues in society. Ownership of assets declined for men between the survey periods while that of women increased slightly. However, there was an overall increase in joint ownership of assets by both men and women.

Issue three highlighted the low levels of employment status amongst women. Gender biases are prevalent in employment, unemployment and in unpaid care activities. Men were found in more labour intensive industries of work (Plant and Machinery and Craft) compared to women who were more in the services sectors (trade and hotel). With regards to unpaid care work, more women than men spent higher potion of their time on unpaid care activities than men irrespective of area of residence and age group

The report indicates that in dealing with gender issues, it's important to recognise that men and women are not homogeneous within and between the two groups. Interventions should be better targeted and designed to attain even greater mileage.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This issues report was made possible with the training in "Gender Statistics Analysis" support of the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA), through its International Training Programme (ITP) offered by Statistics Sweden. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development (MoGLSD), Economic Policy Research Centre (EPRC), the Civil Society Budget Advocacy Group (CSBAG) and The United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women), team[1], combined and produced the report on Gender issues in Uganda.

As a team, we extend our appreciation to all the facilitators of the ITP in Sweden for training us during our three weeks stay in Stockholm. More specifically, we acknowledge the technical support provided by Dr. Therese Hedlund to arrive to this final report. We are also indebted to our institutional affiliation supervisors: Dr. Ibrahim Kasirye (EPRC), Mr. Leo Nampogo (MoGLSD), Ms. Catherine Bekunda & Mr. Vincent Musoke Nsubuga (UBOS), Ms Anna Mutavati (UN Women) and Mr. Julius Mukunda (CSBAG) for granting us the time and technical input to undertake this activity as part of the institutions output.

Finally, The UN women, our development partners, are appreciated for providing the funding to print and launch this report. Without such concerted efforts the exercise would not have yielded a valuable document to contribute to the knowledge base of the diverse material on gender issues in Uganda.

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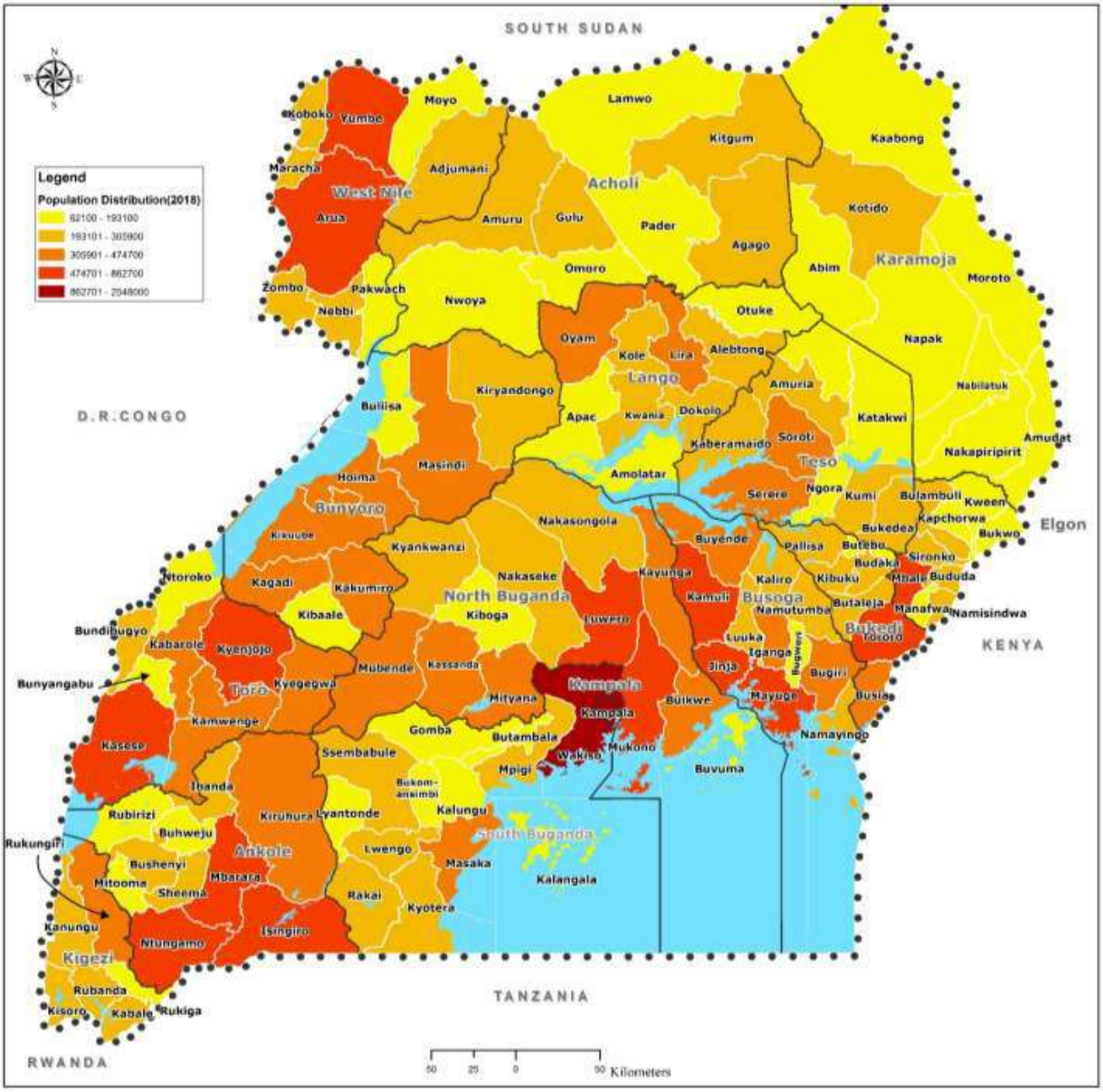
ACRONYMS

BPfA	Beijing Platform of Action
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination all forms of Discrimination against Women
CSBAG	Civil Society Budget Advocacy Group
EPRC	Economic Policy Research Centre
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GoU	Government of Uganda
HIV/AIDS	Human Immune Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ILO	International Labour Organization
MoGLSD	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UDHS	Uganda Demographic Household Survey
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNHS	Uganda National Household Survey
UWEP	Uganda Women's Empowerment Programme
YLP	Youth Livelihoods Programme

Map of Uganda: ***By sub-regions and districts as of July 2018***



Source: UBOS, 2018

1. CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS

Gender: Refers to the differences between women and men, boys and girls within the same household and within and between cultures that are socially and culturally constructed and change over time. These differences are reflected in the roles, responsibilities, access to resources, constraints, opportunities, needs, perceptions, views, etc., conceptualized by both women and men and their interdependence relationships (*Compendium of concepts and definitions on gender statistics, December 2013: www.ubos.org).*

Gender Indicator / Gender sensitive indicators: This measures gender related changes in society over time. The term gender sensitive indicators incorporates sex disaggregated indicators which provide separate measures for men and women on a specific indicator such as literacy or where the indicator is specific to women or men for example women experiencing physical abuse *(Gender and Indicators Overview Report July 2007: www.undp.org).*

Gender Analysis: The systematic gathering and examination of information on gender differences and social relations in order to identify, understand and redress inequities based on gender. It is the process of identifying and classifying roles of women and men in a given economic activity, their relations, access to and control over resources and benefits. (*Compendium of concepts and definitions on gender statistics, December 2013: www.ubos.org)*

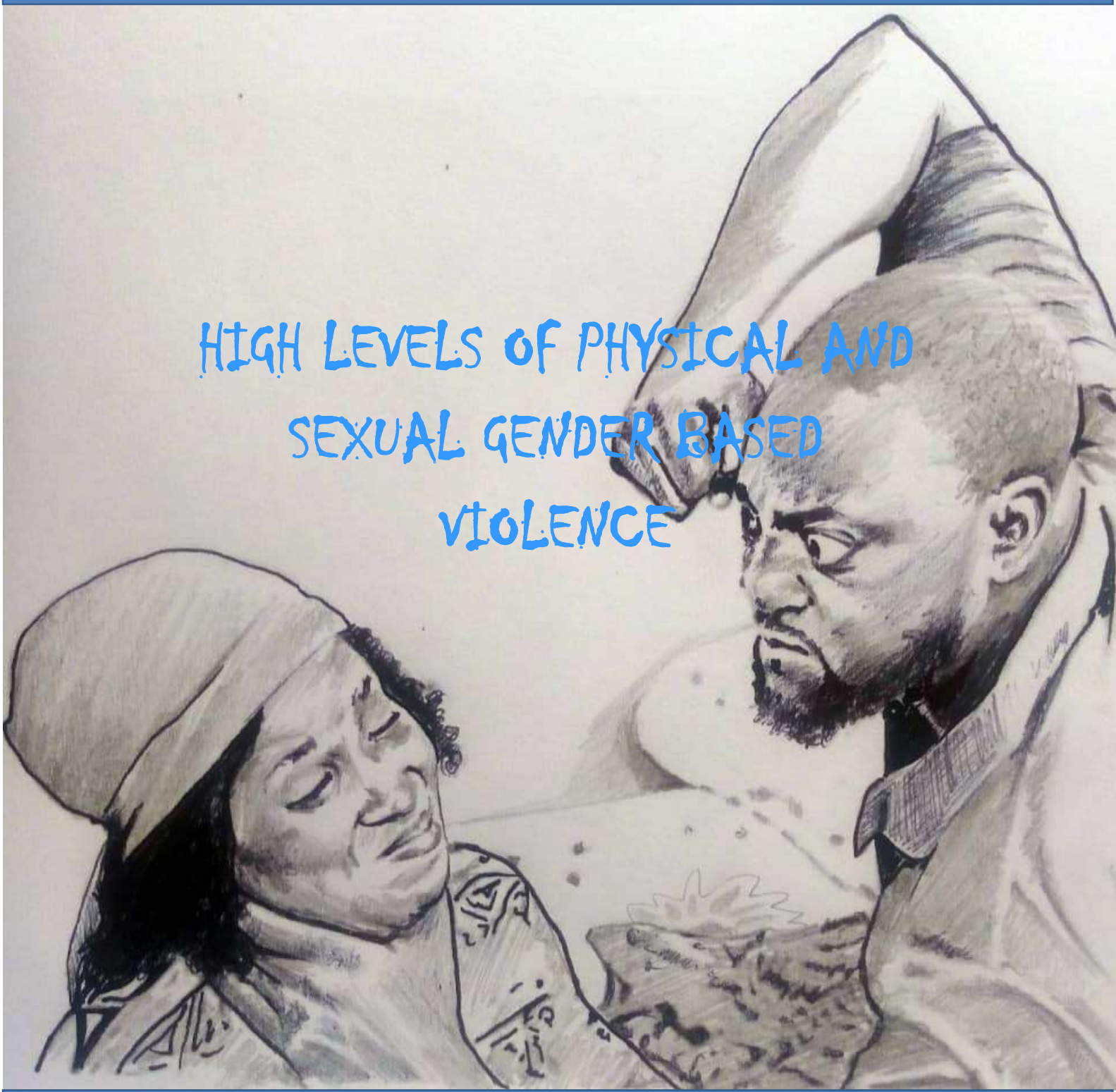
Gender Equality: Gender equality is the equal valuing by society of the similarities and the differences of men and women, boys and girls, and the roles they play from an economic, social, cultural and political development perspective. (*Compendium of concepts and definitions on gender statistics, December 2013: www.ubos.org)*

Gender Equity: Means "fairness of treatment for women and men, according to their respective needs, including the equal treatment or treatment considered equivalent in terms of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities" (*www.unicef.org/gender/training/content/resources/Glossary.pdf*).

Gender statistics: This is an area that cuts across traditional fields of statistics to identify, produce and disseminate statistics that reflect the realities of the lives of women and men, and policy issues relating to gender (*www.unece.org/stats/gender).*

Gender Mainstreaming: A strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated (*www.unicef.org/gender/training/content/resources/Glossary.pdf*)

HIGH LEVELS OF PHYSICAL AND SEXUAL GENDER BASED VIOLENCE



2. ISSUE ONE: HIGH LEVELS OF PHYSICAL AND SEXUAL GENDER BASED VIOLENCE

2.1 PREAMBLE

Gender Based Violence (GBV) in all its manifestations (physical, sexual, Female Genital Mutilation (FGM), emotional and psychological) remains critical in human rights, public health and economic development (MGLSD, 2016). GBV is perpetrated against men, women, boys and girls however, the vast majority of cases reported involve women and girls. Existence of GBV violates one's rights and slows down progress in achieving sustainable inclusive human development. Furthermore, in Uganda, social beliefs, systems, perceptions, attitudes about women and men, boys and girls and their roles in society exacerbate the already fragile categories (DFID, 2016)

Evidence shows that the leading causes of GBV are poverty, alcoholism for both women and men, cultural practices like early marriages, bride price, limited counselling, peer pressure, drug abuse, among others (UNDP, 2015; OXFAM, 2018). In addition, the type of dwellings does matter in early exposure to sex for young adults and children. For instance, in homes that have only one room, sexual engagements by parents are exposed to their children early even without intending to (ibid).

More so poverty has been found to be the most prominent cause for physical and sexual GBV especially in the Acholi and Lango districts. Income poverty in Acholi was at 34.7 percent and 20 percent in Lango (UBoS, 2017). Simply put, three out of ten persons living in Acholi sub region are poor (living below the poverty line). In Karamoja, poverty was at 60 percent (6 out of 10 persons in Karamoja were living below a dollar per day). In such regions, the psycho-social and economic effects of the 20-year conflict fuelled physical and sexual GBV (UNDP, 2015). Women's changing roles and responsibilities, including their increasing economic independence from their husbands, is often seen to have resulted in growing tension at the household level making physical and sexual GBV chronic (*ibid*).

As a result, consequences of sexual and physical GBV are devastating. For example, survivors often experience life-long emotional distress, mental health problems, poor reproductive health, and high risk of acquiring HIV/AIDS. In extreme cases, it leads to death (WHO, 2012).

Based on the above, it is important to understand GBV through analysing the available statistics to be used for raising awareness, better planning and budgeting. As previously noted, GBV takes on various forms. However for this report, focus is on physical and sexual as they are more widely experienced. Data for this issue was sourced from the UDHS 2011 and 2016, focusing on the age, area of residence, wealth quintile and education. Furthermore, the perpetrators of physical and sexual GBV are discussed. Note

that, unless otherwise stated, analysis for UDHS is at individual level representative of the country's population in the respective years.

2.2 FINDINGS

2.2.1 PREVALENCE OF PHYSICAL VIOLENCE

According to UDHS (2016), physical violence occurs when any of the following is done: Pushing, shaking or throwing objects at a person, slapping, twisting one's arm or pulling hair, punching with his or her fist or with something that can hurt a person. In addition, kicking, dragging or beating, trying to chock or burning on purpose, threatening or attacking a person with a knife, gun or any other weapon are also considered (UDHS, 2016).

A. AREA OF RESIDENCE

Figure 1 shows that physical violence is on average more common in rural areas irrespective of gender. In 2016, there were no significant differences in the proportion of men and women who reported physical violence in rural areas (about 52 percent). However, more men in urban areas reported physical violence compared to women in both 2011 and 2016. That is about 58 percent and 49 percent for men and women respectively in 2011, while it was 50 percent and 47 percent for men and women respectively in 2016 (Figure 1). Some of the most cited causes of physical violence in rural areas is linked to limited economic opportunities (see Issue 3) which has led to redundancy and alcoholism (WHO, 2004).

Figure 1: Population aged 15-49 who have experienced physical violence since age 15 by residence, 2011 and 2016

Proportion (%) of all in each group

Source: UDHS, 2011 and 2016

B. AGE GROUP

Among all other age groups, the one of 40-49 years, among women in both 2011 and 2016 reported the highest cases of physical violence at 58.5 percent and 59.5 percent respectively (Table 1). Physical violence among men is more common at the ages of 30-39 in 2016 at 53.2 percent. Interestingly, experiences of physical violence for women in 2016 increased with age. This can be attributed to increased empowerment and exposure that comes with age and widening social networks. We also observe general decline of reported experiences of physical violence for both men and women between 2011 and 2016 for all age groups except the 40-49 years (Table 1).

Table 1: Population aged 15-49 who have experienced physical violence since age 15 by age group, 2011 and 2016

Proportion (%) of all in each group

	2011		2016	
Age group	Women	Men	Women	Men
15-19	54.3	54.0	41.4	51.1
20-24	58.1	57.3	50.4	50.7
25-29	55.2	58.0	52.4	50.6
30-39	55.4	57.1	54.5	53.2
40-49	58.5	50.8	59.5	51.9

Source: UDHS 2011 and 2016

C. EDUCATION LEVEL

One of the leading causes of physical violence is a person's level of education. From Table 2, women with no education reported the highest cases of physical violence, while among men, those with no education reported the lowest cases of physical violence in 2011 and 2016. Simply put, among women the proportion of reported experience of physical violence decreased with an increase in education level. The converse holds among men for both surveys (Table 2).

Table 2: Population aged 15-49 who have experienced physical violence since age 15 by education level, 2011 and 2016

Proportion (%) of all in each group

	2011		2016	
Education level	Women	Men	Women	Men
No education	58.2	47.3	56.2	44.9
Primary	56.4	54.5	53.3	52.3
Secondary	54.7	57.9	46.1	51.0
More than secondary			43.0	52.3

Note: *For 2011, more than secondary is not reflected in the table because it's included in Secondary level at the time of survey*

Source: UDHS, 2011 and 2016

D. WEALTH STATUS

Economic hardships and domestic violence are related (Fahmy *et al.*, undated). However, domestic violence advocates frequently claim that violence against intimates is a "classless"

problem (c.f. Maxwell and Stone, 2010). Thus, wealth influences decision making in a home and elevates one's status in society. From Table 3, generally, the proportion experiencing physical violence declined in 2016 in comparison to 2011 for both men and women (Table 3). More specifically, the lowest (poorest) quintile had 63.3 percent in 2011 and 59.6 percent in 2016 of women reporting experiences of physical violence while for men it was 51.4 percent and 50.5 percent respectively.

In comparison to the highest (richest) quintile, the proportion experiencing physical violence was 47 percent in 2011 for women and it declined further to 44.1 percent in 2016. This accentuates Gelles (1993) argument that family violence is more likely found among the poor and unemployed or those holding low-prestige jobs (c.f. Maxwell and Stone, 2010). Note is that within men, experiences of violence were not necessarily driven by wealth. This collaborates Maxwell and Stone, (2010) argument that violence is "classless".

Table 3: Population aged 15-49 who have experienced physical violence since age 15 by wealth quintile, 2011 and 2016

Proportion (%) of all in each group

	2011		2016	
Quintile	Women	Men	Women	Men
Lowest	63.3	51.4	59.6	50.5
Second	58.6	57.9	53.8	54.9
Middle	60.9	57.7	51.9	49.9
Fourth	54.6	52.2	48.7	52.1
Highest	47.0	57.2	44.1	50.9

Source: UDHS, 2011 and 2016

E. PERPETRATORS OF PHYSICAL VIOLENCE

When reporting information about perpetrator, a respondent was free to report more than one perpetrator. Simply put, the responses were not mutually exclusive. With this in mind, Table 4 shows that physical violence among women, irrespective of year, is caused by current husband/partner. Of all reported cases at 47.5 percent in 2011 and 45 percent in 2016 the perpetrator was a current husband or partner. Furthermore, teachers were the second reported perpetrators of violence among women at 19.8 percent in 2011, however, this reversed in 2016, where 23.2 percent reported that physical violence was perpetrated by their former husbands/partners. While among men, the leading perpetrators of physical violence were teachers at 21 percent in 2011 and 26.5 percent in 2016. Physical punishment by teachers that includes any of the following is regarded as physical violence; hitting a child with the hand or with an object (such as a cane, belt, whip, shoe, and so on); kicking, shaking, or throwing a child, pinching or pulling their hair; forcing a child to stay in an uncomfortable or undignified position, or to take excessive physical exercise; burning or scarring a child and the threat of any of these actions, (Save the Children 2005). Other notable perpetrators are; father/step father and mother/step mother (Table 4).

Of the reported cases for men in 2011, 64.9 percent were physically abused by a person in the category of "others" which is also the highest category of perpetrators in this year.

Others here could relate to a victim's known friend, acquaintance, or stranger. This percentage however dropped in 2016 to 12.3 percent partly due to reduced reported cases of crime caused by the "other" category among men. Never the less, it is possible to conclude that women to a large degree are victims of domestic physical violence, while men more often are victims of physical violence outside their own home.

Table 4: Perpetrators of physical violence among women and men aged 15-49 since age 15, 2011 and 2016

Percentage (%) of all reported cases

	2011		2016	
Persons	Women	Men	Women	Men
Current husband/wife/partner	47.5	19.4	45.0	20.4
Former husband/wife/partner	15.0	3.4	23.2	5.1
Current boyfriend/girlfriend	3.4	0.3	0.7	0.1
Former boyfriend/girlfriend	2.0	1.6	2.4	0.6
Father/stepfather	14.4	12.0	11.9	16.6
Mother/stepmother	15.0	6.4	14.0	8.5
Sister/brother	6.5	9.9	7.8	10.1
Daughter/son	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.3
Other relative	7.2	7.0	7.6	12.1
Mother-in-law	0.1	na	0.2	0.2
Father-in-law	0.1	na	0.1	0.2
Other-in-law	1.2	0.5	1.1	0.7
Teacher	19.8	21.0	19.1	26.5
Employer/someone at work	0.9	2.3	0.7	4.8
Police/soldier	0.1	5.4	0.2	5.9
Other	8.6	64.9	1.8	12.3

Source: UDHS, 2011 and 2016

2.2.2 PREVALENCE OF SEXUAL VIOLENCE

Sexual violence definition varies from harassment, rape, abuse, defilement, forced prostitution of a sexual nature in both women and men, boys and girls (UDHS 2011; 2016).

A. AREA OF RESIDENCE

Experience of sexual violence irrespective of gender declined between survey periods (2011 and 2016). With regards to women, there was a decline of approximately 5 percentage points for both women in rural and urban areas while there was a one percentage point decline for the men in the rural areas (Figure 2). However, the men in the urban areas had an increase in the number who experienced sexual violence from 7.7 percent to 8.7 percent in 2011 and 2016 respectively. The observable decline for women can be attributed to changes in economic activities in recent times especially for those in the urban areas where more women are joining the labour market as early entrepreneurs. The increase among men in urban areas is partly due to increased awareness of the men to report sexual related GBV cases. On the whole, more women experienced sexual violence in both 2011 and 2016 than the men.

Figure 2: Population aged 15-49 who have experienced sexual violence since age 15 by residence, 2011 and 2016

Proportion (%) of all in each group

Source: UDHS, 2011 and 2016

B. AGE GROUP

As with physical violence, sexual violence experiences among women increased with age. Thus, women aged 40-49 years had the highest proportion of having experienced sexual violence in 2011. In 2016, there was a minimal difference observed among women aged 30-39 years and 40-49 years (at about 28 percent) as indicated in Table 5. Furthermore, women aged 15-19 years had the highest reduction in sexual experiences by about 9 percentage points between 2011 and 2016. Among men, there was a general decline in those who experienced sexual violence in all age groups other than the 25-29 years which increased from 7.5 percent in 2011 to 10 percent in 2016, a 2.5 percentage point increase. The general decline in sexual violence cases reported is attributed to increased awareness through country campaigns targeting teenagers, programmes encouraging safe sex, youth and women livelihood programmes and increased stringent laws in tackling cases of sexual violence.

Table 5: Population aged 15-49 who have experienced sexual violence since age 15 by age group, 2011 and 2016

Proportion (%) of all in each group

	2011		2016	
Age group	Women	Men	Women	Men
15-19	18.9	5.9	9.9	4.6
20-24	26.7	10.7	19.9	9.4
25-29	31.0	7.5	25.1	10.0
30-39	30.5	10.7	28.7	9.8
40-49	34.3	10.4	28.2	8.4

Source: UDHS, 2011 and 2016

C. EDUCATION LEVEL

Experiences of sexual violence show that the higher the education level, the lower the incidence especially for more educated men and women. As observed from Table 6, women with no education and primary education level report more experiences of sexual violence irrespective of survey. For example, 28.3 percent and 30.6 percent of women in 2011 with no education and primary education respectively report experiences of sexual violence. The proportion declines to an average 24.4 percent in 2016. With regard to men, reported experiences of sexual violence declined by more than half (from 14 percent to 6.1 percent between 2011 and 2016 respectively). The low levels of sexual violence among men with no education is partly attributed to the strong cultural norms that are engrained in rural areas where most of them are found. This was also witnessed in Figure 3 where the proportion of men reporting cases of sexual violence in rural areas declined.

Table 6: Population aged 15-49 who have experienced sexual violence since age 15 by education level, 2011 and 2016

Proportion (%) of all in each group

	2011		2016	
Education level	Women	Men	Women	Men
No education	28.3	14.0	24.2	6.1
Primary	30.6	9.2	24.9	8.9
Secondary	21.9	7.7	16.6	8.8
More than secondary	-	-	14.1	5.5

Note: *2011 more than secondary is not reflected in the table because it's included in Secondary level*

Source: UDHS, 2011 and 2016

D. WEALTH STATUS

Wealth can either exacerbate or reduce sexual violence in a home or community. As argued in Table 3, violence generally is often "classless". There is a high correlation between income poverty and sexual violence especially among women where bride price has been paid as it creates inequality between men and women in marriage (Thiara and Hague, 2009).

It is noted that among women in the lowest, second and middle quintile, experiences of sexual violence are quite common (Table 7). Interestingly, about 9.2 percent in 2016 from 8.1 percent in 2011 of men in the highest quintile reported experiences of sexual violence. This is partly attributed to more men organisations encouraging them to be open and speak out on violent relationships.

Table 7: Population aged 15-49 who have experienced sexual violence since age 15 by wealth quintile, 2011 and 2016

Proportion (%) of all in each group

	2011		2016	
Quintile	Women	Men	Women	Men
Lowest	32.8	8.8	23.0	6.0
Second	27.1	8.0	24.9	9.3
Middle	30.8	11.2	24.0	8.8
Fourth	29.1	8.7	21.7	8.0
Highest	21.4	8.1	17.5	9.2

Source: UDHS, 2011 and 2016

E. PERPETRATORS OF SEXUAL VIOLENCE

As emphasized before, respondents in the surveys can report more than one perpetrator as the categories are not mutually exclusive. From Table 8, both men and women in 2011 and 2016 reported their current husbands/wife/partner as the most common perpetrators of sexual violence. In 2016 alone, over 50 percent of both men and women indicated their current husband/wife/partner as the perpetrators, but much higher among women than men. More so, the proportion of men reporting sexual violence almost doubled from 28.9 percent to 53.5 percent in 2011 and 2016 respectively. This is partly a result of increased sensitization of the masses on violence, both sexual and physical by the Police and development partners (UNICEF together with USAID) heavy involvement in health sexual education. For example, directly providing information on the reporting channels and fighting both cultural and societal norms that drive violence. However, it is important to note that women experience sexual violence to a much higher degree than men (see Figure 2).

Among women, former husband/wife/partner and a stranger were the second and third most common perpetrators of sexual violence respectively. While among men, own friend/acquaintance and former husband/wife/partner were the second and third most common perpetrators of sexual violence. Other notable categories of perpetrators are employer and other relatives.

Table 8: Perpetrators of sexual violence to women and men aged 15-49 since age 15, 2011 and 2016

Percentage (%) of all reported cases

	2011		2016	
Person	Women	Men	Women	Men
Current husband/wife/partner	49.3	28.9	58.9	53.5
Former husband/wife/partner	15.7	12.9	29.2	12.4
Current/former boyfriend/girlfriend	2.0	5.4	5.6	6.4
Father/mother/stepfather/stepmother	0.1	na	0.2	0.4
Brother/sister/Stepbrother/stepsister	0.4	na	0.5	0.2
Other relative	4.7	7.4	1.9	2.4
In-law	1.9	4.9	1.2	0.5
Own friend/acquaintance	5.6	15.2	4.7	19.5
Family friend	2.4	5.6	2.5	6.9
Teacher	1.1	na	0.8	0.9
Employer/someone at work	0.6	0.2	0.5	1.2
Police/soldier	14.1	0.4	0.2	0.2
Priest/religious leader	na	na	0.3	na
Stranger	14.1	13.5	6.6	4.4
Other	2.0	5.2	0.2	na

Source: UDHS, 2011 and 2016

2.3 CONCLUSION

Using UDHS for 2011 and 2016, the trends show that the magnitude of physical and sexual violence increase with age but decline with education attainment and improve with wealth for both men and women. Nonetheless, observations also reveal that sexual violence is higher among the women despite the reported experiences declining over time. Furthermore, current husband/wife/partner were found to be the leading perpetrators of both physical and sexual violence. Major improvements in GBV are attributed to increased awareness campaigns by both state and non-state actors, improvement in enforcement of the GBV policy, improvement in alternative livelihood options and empowerment especially among women. However, more needs to be done to further fight both sexual and physical violence.

LOW LEVELS OF ASSET OWNERSHIP
AMONGST WOMEN

3. ISSUE TWO: LOW LEVELS OF ASSET OWNERSHIP AMONGST WOMEN

3.1 PREAMBLE

Economic security throughout life is intrinsically linked to both income and asset ownership (Doss, 2010). Building assets helps individuals, families and communities expand their economic cohesion and rise in social status in community. Ratcliffe *at al.* (2007) further assert that assets provide future consumption and are a source of security against calamities. As investments, they also generate returns that generally aggregate life time consumption and improve a household's wellbeing over the extended time horizon (ibid). Mixed evidence exists on the relationship between asset ownership and experience of intimate partner violence (Peterman *et al.*, 2017). For instance, Peterman *et al.* (2017) on disaggregating by asset type, sole or joint ownership, women's age, and community level of women's asset ownership similarly find no conclusive patterns of asset ownership and violence. This suggests that the relationship between women's asset ownership and intimate partner violence is highly context specific.

In Uganda, as is elsewhere, people acquire assets through different means. Assets may be inherited, received as gifts or transfers, purchased or distributed by the state (UBoS, 2017). Evidence shows that women and men obtain assets through different channels (Deere and Doss, 2006; Doss, 2010; OXFAM 2018). Deere and Doss (2006) and OXFAM (2018) argue that for Uganda, ownership and control of household assets is greatly linked to culture while Doss, (2010) asserts that very few assets other than land are inherited, most are purchased.

Assets can either be financial or physical. There are laws and policies that help guide asset ownership in Uganda. Some of these lay in the Uganda Land Act (1998), Land Acquisition Act No 226, the Succession Act No. 162, various acts under the Marriage and Divorce Chapter 32 such as the Customary Marriage (Registration) Act No. 248 and the Marriage Act No 251.

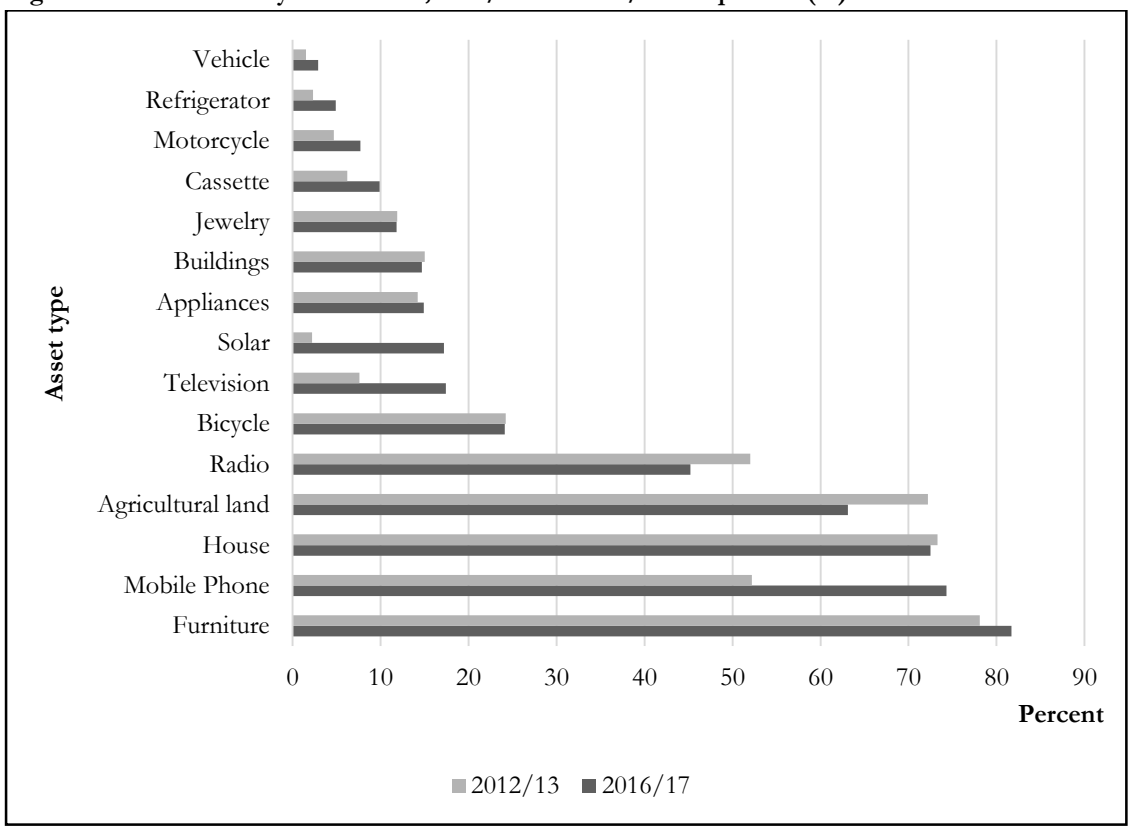
In this issue, we mainly discuss physical assets and apply a gender lens by disaggregating the asset ownership by women and men. Such assets that are important include; dwellings (house), land, livestock, businesses, agricultural equipment, phones and other household related items. Given the complexities around the recognition and implementation of property rights and their variation across space in accordance with social norms, the need for statistical presentation on individual-level ownership of, and rights to assets is particularly important for Uganda as it strives to bridge the disconnect between state and customary laws regulating property rights. This issue specifically uses the Uganda National Household Survey datasets of 2012/13 and 2016/17 which are nationally representative to analyse physical assets ownership by sex.

3.2 FINDINGS

Some assets are considered as a necessity while others are considered a luxury. For example, in Uganda land is considered the most important asset to an individual, household or community. On the overall, the assets mostly owned by a household include furniture, mobile phone, house, agricultural land and radio. At least over 50 percent of households highlighted that they owned these assets in both 2012/13 and 2016/17 (Figure 3). More especially, about 78 percent of households in 2012/13 owned household furniture, a share which increased to 82 percent in 2016/17. We also note the growth in mobile phone ownership between the two survey periods by a 22 percentage points increase.

House (dwelling) ownership remained almost unchanged between the two surveys, probably as most are likely to be permanent as it is a necessity. In addition, agricultural land ownership slightly declined from about 72 percent to 63 percent probably due to changing economic patterns of households with a shift from land to services. Less than 10 percent of households indicated to own a vehicle, refrigerator, motorcycle and cassette (Figure 3). Such commodities are considered a luxury and more owned by the affluent and non-poor households. The sex distribution patterns of ownership for each asset is presented in Appendix Table A.1.

Figure 3: Asset owned by households, 2012/13 and 2016/17: Proportion (%) of all households



Source: UNHS 2012/2013; 2016/2017

In the following discussion, we single out the most commonly owned household assets as shown in Figure 3 and discuss these, in turn highlighting the sex differences in ownership at household level.

A. FURNITURE OWNERSHIP

Household furniture refers to basic furniture requirements in the home including sofa sets, tables and beds, among others. Thus, from Figure 4, of all furniture in a household, about 31 percent was owned solely by a man in 2016/17 indicating a significant reduction in ownership from 61 percent in 2012/13. The reduction is partly explained by the almost double increase in the joint (men and women) furniture ownership from about 24 percent in 2012/13 to almost 41 percent in 2016/17. This simply implies that more households are jointly purchasing furniture in their accumulation of assets. Nonetheless, we observe an increase in the proportion of women solely owning furniture at household level (Figure 4). This could partly be due to more women attaining economic emancipation which has enabled them to accumulate more furniture, or women making more decisions on furniture expenditure related items in the household.

Figure 4: Furniture ownership by household members 2012/13 and 2016/17

Proportion (%) by ownership

Source: UNHS 2012/2013; 2016/2017

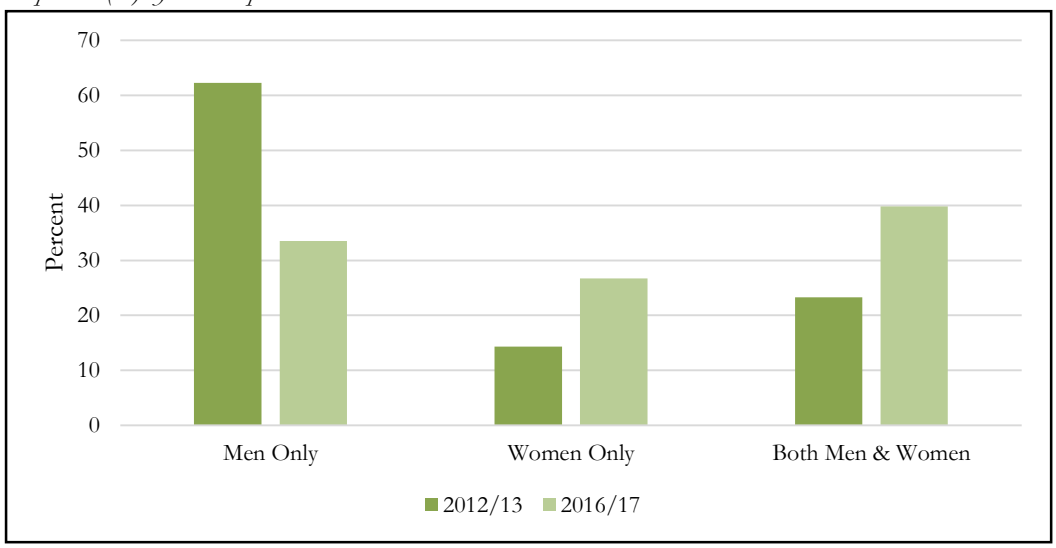
B. AGRICULTURAL LAND OWNERSHIP

Land in particular is a major factor that characterizes a fusion of household and national 'asset politics'. Land is a key asset in rural areas that are predominantly agriculture. Hence, ownership be in form of user rights, majority user, purchase and inherited which can be either sole or joint ownership of an individual or community level ownership. Culturally, land ownership is related to marital status and so without formal ties of marriage, women have more tenuous claims than their partners on land (Doss, 2010). We discuss agricultural land only given its importance in production at a household level and the extent to which having land or being landless can perpetuate GBV.

As Figure 5 shows, in 2012/13 about 62 percent of agricultural land at household level was owned by men only however, this ownership declined to about 34 percent in 2016/17. The proportion of women solely owning agricultural land increased between the survey periods. The increase in ownership of agricultural land by the women contributes to a reduction in sexual and physical abuse and later an increase in quality of life (Kelkar, et al. 2015). Nonetheless, agricultural land ownership remains a male domain in Uganda despite evidence showing that its women, boys and girls who work more on the farms. Joint ownership of agricultural land at household level increased to about 40 percent in 2016/17 compared to 23 percent in 2012/13. This is attributed to enforcement of laws that recognise women in marriages or partnership relations and probably the increasing user rights women get from agricultural land usage.

Figure 5: Agricultural land ownership by household members 2012/13 and 2016/17

Proportion (%) by ownership



Source: UNHS 2012/2013; 2016/2017

C. HOUSE OWNERSHIP

From Figure 6, ownership of houses by men stood at 31 percent compared to 28 percent by women in 2016/17. There is a great decrease in house ownership by men from 59 percent in 2012/13 to 31 percent in 2016/17. Joint house ownership on the other side increased from 25 percent to 41 percent in 2012/13 and 2016/17 respectively. This implies that there is an increase in joint house ownership by men and women.

Figure 6: House ownership by household members 2012/13 and 2016/17

Proportion (%) by ownership

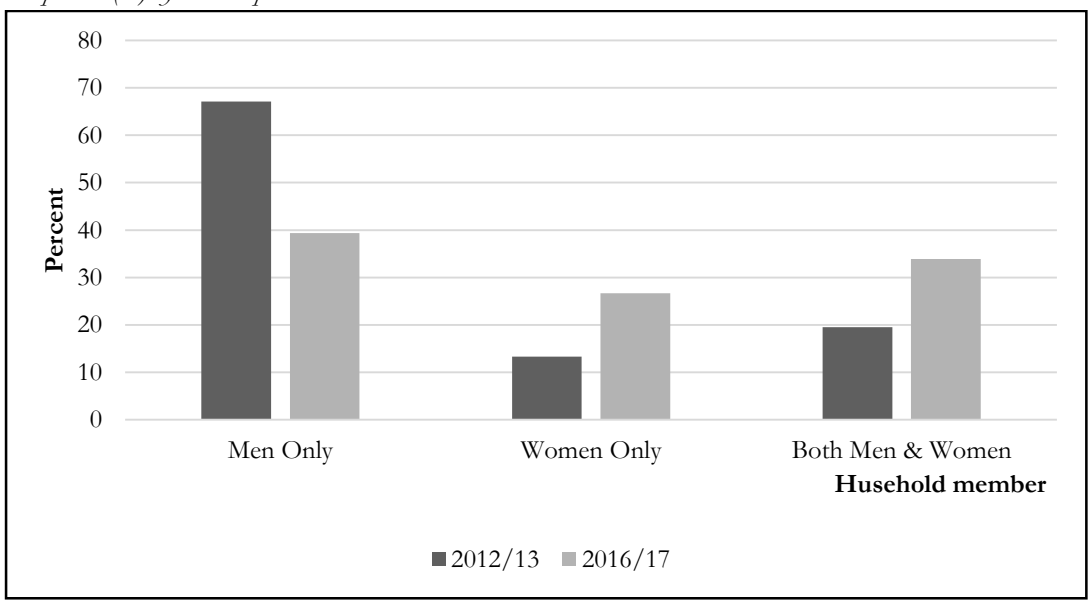
Source: UNHS 2012/2013; 2016/2017

D. PHONE OWNERSHIP

Access to a phone device aids information communication and business decision making. From Figure 7, about 39 percent of men compared to 27 percent women in 2016/17 owned a mobile phone representing an improvement in bi-gender ownership from 67 percent and 13 percent for men and women respectively in 2012/13. Joint ownership of a mobile phone improved from 20 percent in 2012/13 to 34 percent in 2016/17.

Figure 7: Mobile phone ownership by household members 2012/13 and 2016/17

Proportion (%) by ownership



Source: UNHS, 2012/2013; 2016/2017

3.3 CONCLUSION

The deficiency of asset ownership affects both women and men and contributes to gender issues in society. Generally, ownership of assets declined for men between the survey periods while that of women increased slightly. However, there was an overall increase in joint ownership of assets by both men and women which could be explained by the increasing application of the law that recognises customary marriages and co-habiting of partners who have been living together for more than 5 years. Intuitively, asset ownership for women is linked to a reduction in Gender Based Violence they face. This is not to say that the observed reduction in physical and sexual GBV in 2016 as noted in Issue One is as a result of increased asset accumulation for women in 2016/17 as the surveys are different and picked on different populations.

LOW LEVELS OF EMPLOYMENT STATUS
AMONGST WOMEN

4. ISSUE THREE: LOW LEVELS OF EMPLOYMENT STATUS AMONGST WOMEN

4.1 PREAMBLE

Understanding employment patterns is vital in this report as it comes with high social and economic costs that are directly linked to GBV and asset accumulation. In addition, employment status has highly notable gender biases depending on sector of employment and hours of work. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), GBV negatively impacts the world of work. More so, Cruz and Klinger (2011) argue that due to life-long discrimination and job stereotyping, most women work in low-paying and lower-status jobs with little decision-making or bargaining power. In addition, men are also at a higher occupational risk if they work nightshifts in small stores, which are more exposed to armed robberies and violence, and those in law enforcement (ibid). With regard to asset ownership and employment, workers with no assets are susceptible to accept low paying jobs (Browning *et al*., 2010), which goes for both women and men more so for women who undertake unpaid care work and work in less decent work than men.

Without a broad participation in the labour market, a sustainable and inclusive growth is not possible. Thus, an analysis of employment from a gender perspective for Uganda provides key insights on the spill over possibility of addressing GBV and how to harness the potential asset accumulation to increase bargaining power for better opportunities both at home and in a work place. This also promotes social inclusion and combats poverty. The National Employment Policy (2011), aims to increase decent employment opportunities and labour productivity for socio-economic transformation. In addition, several labour laws such as the Employment Act, Cap. 219, Minimum Wage Advisory Board and Wages Councils Act No. 221, Workers Compensation Act No. 225 (GoU, 2016) exist to support the implementation of the policy.

The gender perspective of employment through hands-on statistics, herein, will strengthen a deeper understanding of Uganda's labour market, contribute to the GoU integrated approach to employment and decent work and strengthen the pro-poor focus of interventions, in addressing challenges of the informal economy. In addition, monitoring and evaluation of Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 8 on decent work and economic growth will be eased. This issue utilises data gathered by UBOS from the National Household Surveys 2012/13 and 2016/17 and Uganda Labour Force Survey (LFS) 2016/17 where necessary.

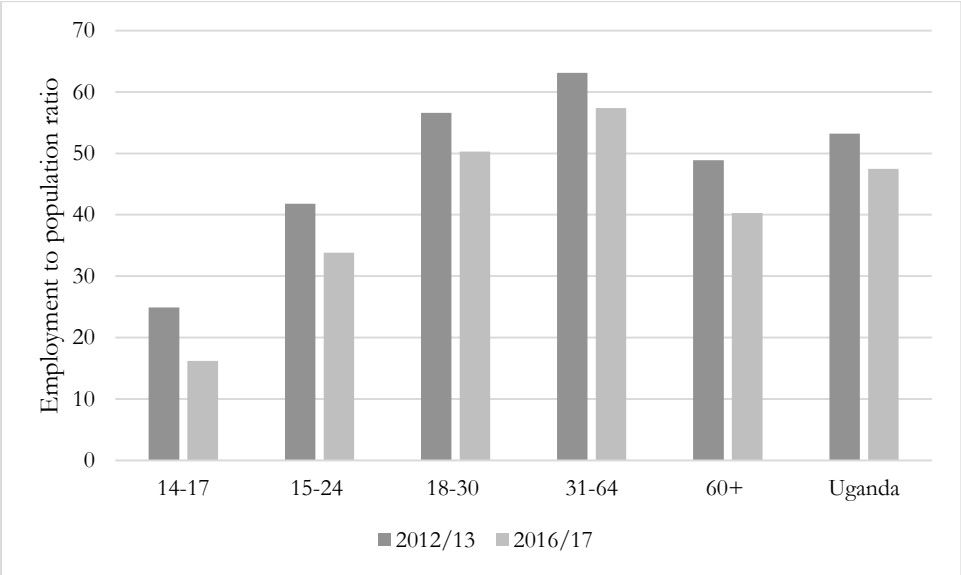
4.2 FINDINGS

A. EMPLOYED POPULATION

Uganda's population in 2016/17 was estimated at 37.7 million of which 52 percent were females, an increase from 34 .6 million in 2012/13 (UBOS, 2017). The total working age population defined for those aged 14 – 64 years was about 19.2 million of which those

who actually were working to produce goods and services was estimated at 15.1 million in 2016/17. More specifically, with regard to employment[2], Figure 8 shows the employment to population ratio (EPR) by age group and year of survey. Where the sub categorisation of the age group is as follows: young are those aged 14 – 17 years, youth are 18 – 30 years and adults are 31 – 64 years. As expected EPR is highest among the youth and adults. A reduction in EPR for the young was as a result of a reduction in child labour and enforcement of the law on ensuring children are in school instead of in paid employment. In addition, it can be attributed to a slight reduction in the population of this age group.

Figure 8: Employment to population ratio by age group, 2012/13 and 2016/17



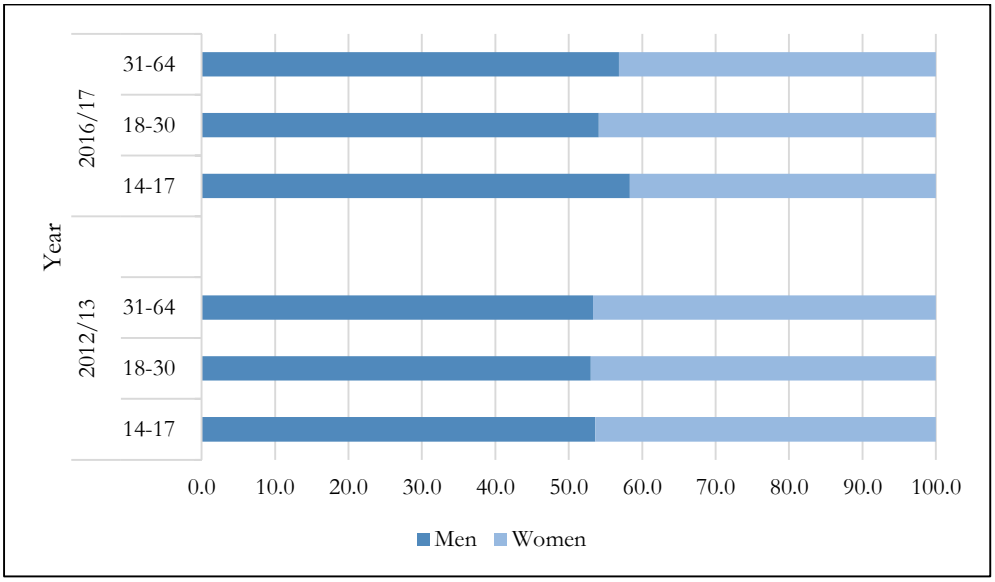
Source: UBOS, UNHS 2012/2013; 2016/2017

Overall, the share of the employed population increased for men compared to women between the two survey periods (Figure 9). Simply put, more men than women were actively engaged in any economic activity for pay both in 2012/13 and 2016/17 irrespective of age group. Specifically, the share of young persons (14 – 17 years) joining active labour market increased by 4.7 percentage points among men while that of young women declined by the same magnitude for years of survey. This is partly attributed to the girl child advocacy campaigns that are ensuring that girls join and stay in school while for boys, the environmental factors could explain this increase where more boys had to leave school and look for work when drought hit in 2016/17. However, despite the increased participation in the active labour market among men, this does not necessarily mean, its decent work.

[2] By definition, persons in employment is a concept encompassing all those of working age who, during a short reference period, were engaged in any activity to produce goods or provide services for pay or profit.

Figure 9: Employed population, aged 14-64 by age group, 2012/13 and 2016/17

Sex distribution, %



Source: UBOS, UNHS 2012/2013; 2016/2017

B. EMPLOYED POPULATION BY REGION

The employed population of Ugandans aged 14 – 64 years is spread vastly across the country. From Table 9, the biggest employed population is in Kampala city although it reduced slightly from 74.7 percent in 2012/13 to 71.0 percent in 2016/17 for men and from 55.6 percent to 52.3 percent for women respectively. Also, the peri-urban areas of Kampala had an even more share of both men and women employed than any other region in 2016/17. This points to the economic opportunities that the city centre and its surrounding areas offer to people. In addition, the market is more diverse in these regions.

Table 9 further shows that the central and western regions are not far behind as regions with upcoming economic opportunities available. This is clearly seen with the fast urbanisation rate that is observed in the western region especially. While the Northern region has its unique peculiarities given its now over 13 years after conflict, the employed population is at least higher than that in the eastern region. According to survey findings from OXFAM (2018), persons in the north are more business and less in agriculture hence involved more in petty trade due to the region's proximity with South Sudan a big market of Ugandan goods. The eastern region's having the least employed population for both years of survey more so for women (37.7 percent in 2012/13 to 24.1 percent in 2016/17) alludes to several social norms and the growing income poverty due to population bulge in the region. According to the UBoS (2014) census report, the eastern region has the highest number of child marriages and with limited opportunities arising from use of land for production due to its high population.

Table 9: Employed population, aged 14-64 by region, 2012/13 and 2016/17

Proportion (%) of all in each group

	2012/13		2016/17	
Region	Men	Women	Men	Women
Kampala City	74.7	55.8	71.0	52.3
Peri-Urban Kampala	na	na	78.6	54.9
Central	69.7	54.2	64.7	47.6
Eastern	50.1	37.7	44.9	24.1
Karamoja	na	na	34.2	33.8
Northern	65.0	65.4	49.0	36.3
Western	55.6	37.8	59.2	44.1
Total	60.1	48.0	56.2	39.8

Source: UBOS, UNHS 2012/2013; 2016/2017

C. INDUSTRY OF WORK FOR WORKING POPULATION

The working population is spread across several industries including: agriculture, forestry and fishing, trade, manufacturing, education, transportation and storage among others. From Table 10, based on the percentage distribution, Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing is the major employer irrespective of gender in 2012/13 (39.9 percent-men Vs 43.1 percent - women) and 2016/17 (35.6 percent-men vs 36.1 percent-women), followed by trade. This simply reveals that women are more likely to be in agriculture but this does not indicate how labour is distributed between men and women within agriculture.

From Table 10, sex distribution within sectors brings out interesting findings. It follows that actually more men than women are working in agriculture irrespective of the survey round. For instance 56 percent of men compared to 46 percent of women were in agriculture in 2016/17. Although, more women (80 percent) are working in service industry compared to men (20 percent). In sectors such as transport and storage together with construction men dominate in the two rounds of survey (on average over 98 percent. Other services sectors with more women include trade.

The bias in sex distribution within sectors is mainly attributed to the labour-intensive nature of the industry of work (Table 10). This trend is depicted irrespective of the survey. Evidence has shown that women tend to work in less risky jobs that are more likely to be informal due to flexible hours of work but offer little pay (EPRC, 2017).

Table 10: Industry of work for working population, aged 14-64 years, 2012/13 and 2016/17

Percentage distribution (%) and sex distribution (%)

	Percentage distribution (%)				Sex distribution (%)			
	2012/13		2016/17		2012/13		2016/17	
Industry	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing	39.9	43.1	35.6	36.1	51.3	48.7	55.5	44.5
Trade	17.0	23.5	18.2	28.4	45.1	54.9	44.6	55.4
Manufacturing	11.9	15.1	8.3	7.3	47.3	52.7	58.7	41.3
Education	4.4	3.9	4.1	4.9	56.4	43.6	51.3	48.7
Transportation and storage	6.8	0.4	9.9	0.0	95.6	4.4	99.7	0.3
Construction	7.4	0.2	8.2	0.1	98.0	2.0	99.4	0.6
Accommodation and food service activities	1.0	4.6	1.3	6.7	19.8	80.2	19.5	80.5
Others	11.6	9.3	14.4	16.6	58.8	41.2	52.3	47.7
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**				

Source: UBOS - UNHS 2012/2013; 2016/2017

D. STATUS IN EMPLOYMENT ON THE MAIN JOB

Among sexes, Table 11 shows that more men were employed as paid employees however this share declined from 51.1 percent in 2012/13 to 46.2 in 2016/17 while more women were own account workers, a share which increased between survey rounds (from 48.7 percent in 2012/13 to 58.2 percent in 2016/17). Even though the trend among men and women across the main job category was not different, biases arise when a critical look is taken on the distribution of men and women within each job category. For instance, while both men and women were less of employers (by percentage distribution), the sex distribution shows that more men (over 70 percent on average) were employers by almost three-folds compared to women. In addition, the share of men in paid employment doubled that of women in 2016/17 (i.e. 67.1percent –men Vs 32.9 percent women).

Furthermore, the majority of women were working as contributing family workers (shop attendants, baby sitters, etc.) and own account worker (entrepreneurial business) compared to men in both surveys. This is partly attributed to the social norms where Uganda is a more patriarchal society in which more women are employed in home related work including doing household chores. Much as the Government of Uganda has tried to empower women through UWEP (Uganda Women Empowerment Program) to hold their own businesses, there are however, very few women paid employees and employers. This gap needs to be boosted to improve the gender disparities in the country.

Table 11: Employment status for the working age population, aged 14-64 years, 2012/13 and 2016/17

Percentage distribution (%) and sex distribution (%)

	Percentage				Sex distribution, %			
	2012/13		2016/17		2012/13		2016/17	
Employment status	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Paid employee	51.1	35.0	46.2	28.6	62.4	37.6	67.1	32.9
Employer	2.4	1.1	5.5	2.9	71.3	28.7	70.7	29.3
Own account worker	37.7	48.7	44.0	58.2	46.9	53.1	48.8	51.2
Contributing family workers	8.9	15.3	4.3	10.4	39.7	60.3	34.1	65.9
Total, %	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**				

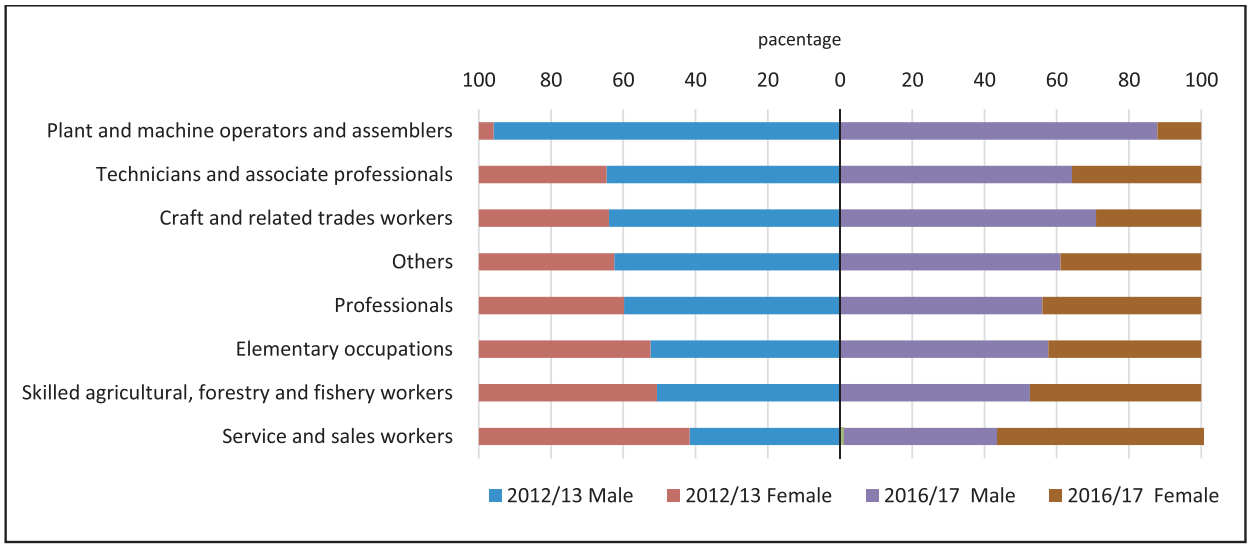
Source: UBOS- UNHS 2012/2013; 2016/2017

E. OCCUPATIONS OF THE MAIN JOB

Occupation refers to the kind of work an individual does irrespective of the qualification or place of work. Herein, information on occupation for the working young persons was classified using ISCO-2008 with data from UBOS. Figure 10 indicates that while more men were occupying jobs such as Plant and machine operators and assemblers; Technicians and associate professionals; and craft and related trades workers in both 2012/13 and 2016/17, women were found occupying: service and sales positions; skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers; and sometimes elementary occupations workers for the main job. These findings mimic results under industry of employment, were women were more in the services sector and men in transport and construction sectors. In addition, this also reflects the labour intensive nature of these occupations and the big wage disparities that are associated with the nature of job.

Figure 10: Occupation on main job for the working population (14-64 years), by year

Sex distribution, (%)



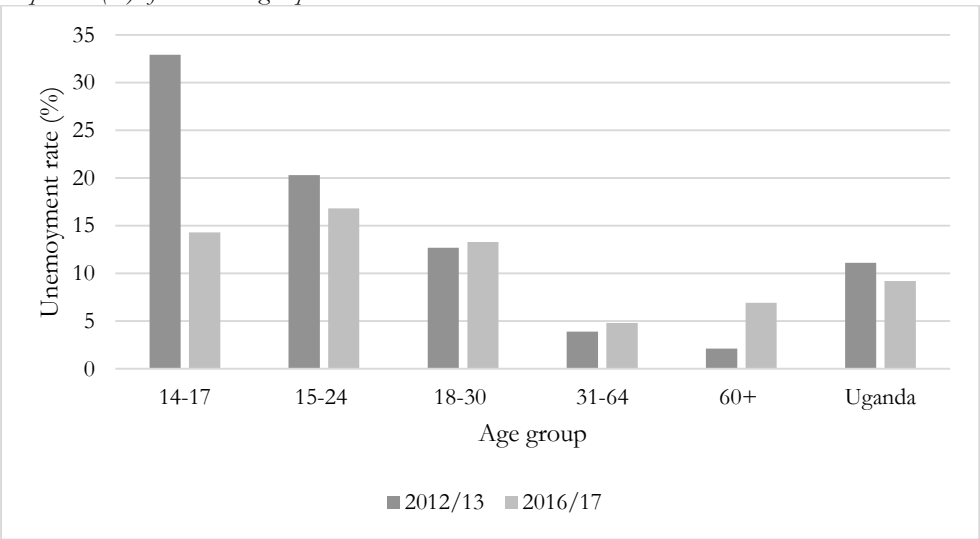
Source: UBOS- UNHS 2012/2013; 2016/2017

F. UNEMPLOYMENT RATE FOR WORKING POPULATION

Despite the high employment population rate indicated in sections above, there is still a portion of the working population that is unemployed i.e. a population that is willing to work but is unable to find work as indicated in Figure 11. Generally, the unemployment rate (UR) in Uganda declined from 11.1 percent to 9.2 percent in 2012/13 and 2016/17 respectively. This was mainly driven by a substantial 18.6 percentage points decline in the UR for young ones (14-17 years) as probably more children were forced to attend school (so not idle) rather than look for work. In addition, UR declined for the age group 15-24 years given that these are supposed to be in school as well if the whole education cycle for Uganda is completed. Nonetheless, unemployment slightly rose among the young from 12.7 percent in 2012/13 to 13.3 percent in 2016/17 and for the adults and the elderly as well (Figure 11).

Figure 11: Unemployment rate by age group and year

Proportion (%) of all in each group



Source: UBOS-UNHS, 2013; 2017

Having highlighted the trends in unemployment rate by age group and by sex at country level, findings shows that, more women are unemployed compared to men irrespective of survey period. More specifically, the unemployment rate (UR) for women was 8.9 percent compared to that of men which was 6.4 in 2012/13 (Figure 12). In 2016/17, the UR for men declines to 5.8 percent, while that of women increased by 4.3 percentage points. The higher UR for women alludes to either skills gap, low education attainment or limited opportunities in the job market for women for the kind of work they can do. However, GoU has put in place the Uganda Women Entrepreneurship Programme (UWEP) since 2016 to directly offer start-up capital for women to open businesses. The effectiveness of the initiative to reduce UR among women is yet to be seen.

Figure 12: Unemployment rate for working age population, aged 14-64, 2012/13 and 2016/17

Proportion (%) of all in each group

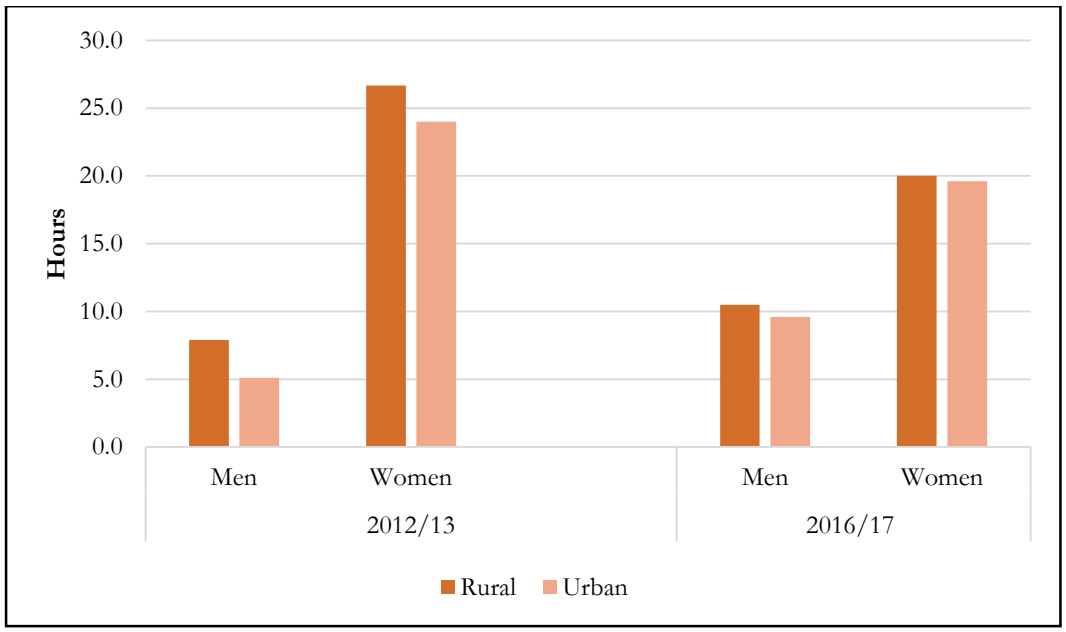
Source: UBOS-UNHS, 2012/2013; 2016/2017

G. AVERAGE WEEKLY NUMBER OF HOURS SPENT ON UNPAID CARE WORK

Given the increased recognition of unpaid care work globally[3] and in Uganda, it is important to note that the high UR among women is possibly due to limited appreciation of considering unpaid care work as a job. Figure 13 reveals that women especially in rural areas spent more time per week on unpaid care work than men. Nonetheless, the amount of time spent on unpaid care work for women in rural areas declined by about 6 hours between the survey period while the weekly hours for men increased by almost 3 hours in 2016/17. We also note that the weekly hours of work also increased for men in urban areas from 5.1 hours in 2012/13 to 9.6 hours in 2016/17. However, there were no significant differences on the weekly hours of work spent on unpaid care for women residing in rural and urban areas more especially in 2016/17. Such findings point to the fact that irrespective of location, women continue to bear the urban of unpaid care work in a home (such as looking after children, cooking, collecting firewood, washing clothes etc.) as social cultural norms are so ingrained that these are women activities (OXFAM, 2018).

3 Global Agenda 2030 SDG 5 to 'achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls'; target 5.4 specifically calls for countries to Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate (UN, 2015)

Figure 13: Average weekly number of hours spent on unpaid care work, (age 5 and above) by residence, 2012/13 and 2016/17



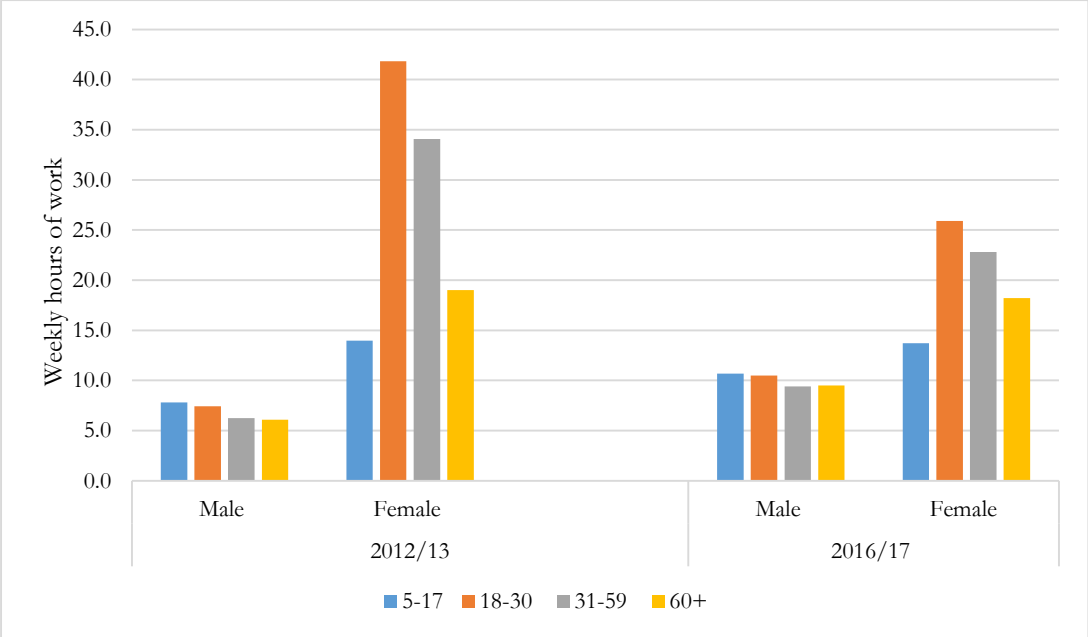
Source: UBOS-UNHS, 2012/2013; 2016/2017

H. HOURS SPENT ON UNPAID CARE WORK BY AGE GROUP

Irrespective of age group, women more than men spent a substantial amount of their time on unpaid care work activities within a home or community (Figure 14). More specifically, women aged 18 – 30 years followed by those aged 31 – 59 years spend the highest portion of their time on a weekly basis on unpaid care work. Nonetheless, the amount of time spent on these activities declined between the two survey rounds. Despite the fact that men's weekly amount of time spent on unpaid care work generally increased in 2016/17 compared to 2012/13 , this is still less than half as much time as that of women in the same category (Figure 14). The women in the 18-30 year age group are just getting married hence child bearing and raring is high for them and which in turn follows through to the 31-59 year age group when children start school to when they graduate.

Yet, most often unpaid care work is considered simple and unimportant and yet it takes up more time, is more engaging and should therefore be considered with plausible solutions to balance it among men and women. In addition, it contributes to the overall functioning of a home, community and country.

Figure 14: Average weekly number of hours spent on unpaid care work by age group, (5 years and above), 2012/13 and 2016/17



Source: UBOS-UNHS 2012/13 and 2016/17

4.3 CONCLUSION

Overall, gender biases are prevalent in employment, unemployment and in unpaid care activities. We observed that of the working population, more men were in paid employment and were also likely to be employers compared to women who majorly worked as contributing family workers or in self-employment. Men were found in more labour intensive industries of work (Plant and Machinery and Craft) compared to women who were more in the services sectors (trade and hotel). Furthermore, with regards to unpaid care work, more women than men spent higher potion of their time on unpaid care activities than men irrespective of area of residence and age group. This points to the element that women are actually underutilised in the labour force.

5. OVERALL CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1. OVERALL CONCLUSION

Uganda has made tremendous efforts in bring about gender equity and equality through the various policies and programme initiatives in place. This is observed in the tremendous improvement in the physical and sexual Gender Based Violence (GBV), asset ownership and employment status indicators for the two periods analysed in this report. However, it is also observed that with regard to unemployment rate, more women were becoming unemployed in 2016/17 compared to 2012/13. This points to the fact that in dealing with gender issues, it's important to recognise that men and women are not homogeneous within and between the two groups. Interventions should be better targeted and designed to attain even greater mileage.

5.2 RECOMMENDATION

The recommendations suggested in this report were entirely forwarded by Economic Policy Research Centre (EPRC) and Civil Society Budget Advocacy Group (CSBAG) participants. As a recommendation, they noted that; it's important to point out that gender dynamics continue to evolve. In addition, while this report has tackled three issues on GBV, asset ownership and employment, there more factors that contribute to their performance than what has been analysed. The interlinkages between employment, asset accumulation to either increased or reduced sexual and physical violence can be further analysed and concretised. But for meaningful strides towards reduction in GBV, creating more opportunities for men and women and reducing the gender biases that exist therein, the following are suggested.

A. ENGAGING MEN AND BOYS

The attitudes that men exhibit including; the beliefs that men should be the presumed head of house-holds particularly in decision making; having the power to decide on incomes of the women, limiting women freedom of movement and association; believing that they have the right to expect sex whenever they want from their wives, girlfriends and sexual partners and that it is acceptable to resort to violence if the women declines. These gender related attitudes directly affect the health and wellbeing of women and girls. Engaging men and boys to challenge the gender dynamics can have a positive impact on the health and well-being of women and girls.

B. TRANSFORMATION OF NORMS AND BEHAVIOUR

The logic of Gender Based Violence, Asset ownership and Employment is based on gender stereotypes linking masculinity to macho behaviour and perpetrators of violence while linking femininity to submission and victimhood. Both formal and non-formal education are important establishments for normative change and have the potential to address gender inequalities.

C. OPERATIONALIZATION OF EXISTING LEGISLATION

While legislation on prevention of Gender-Based Violence and property rights exist, the major obstacles continue to exist in the budgets, human and institutional capacity to implement the frameworks. Emphasis should be placed on bridging the gap between the legislation and strengthening accountability mechanisms to follow up and evaluate the implementation of the legislation.

D. INCREASED AWARENESS, RESEARCH AND ANALYSIS

The conversation on gender deficiencies needs to be on-going at all levels of society for there to be any meaningful change. Government of Uganda, together with Civil Society, religious set ups and Development Partners should continue to deliberately involve the grass root and beneficiary groups. Given that the report has focused on 3 issues: Gender-Based Violence, asset ownership and employment, more can be done in terms of analysing the correlations between the issues analysed in this report to school dropout levels, cultural norms and practices to further contextualise the findings the trends this report is bringing out.

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Appendix

Table A.1: Ownership of selected household assets by sex of household members (%) and year

	2012/13			2016/17		
Asset type	**Men Only**	**Women Only**	**Both Men and Women**	**Men Only**	**Women Only**	**Both Men and Women**
Furniture	61.0	14.8	24.2	31.3	28.1	40.6
Mobile Phone	67.1	13.3	19.5	39.4	26.7	33.9
House	59.2	15.6	25.3	30.5	28.1	41.4
Agricultural land	62.3	14.3	23.3	33.5	26.7	39.8
Radio	69.6	12.7	17.6	50.8	21.8	27.4
Livestock	-	-	-	29.8	28.1	42.1
Land (excluding agric land)	-	-	-	37.1	26.6	36.3
Bicycle	75.7	6.8	17.5	63.1	13.5	23.4
Television	65.4	14	20.6	36.9	26.2	37
Solar	70.9	9.2	19.9	44.6	20.2	35.2
Appliances	59.8	16.3	23.9	34.2	27.8	38
Buildings	66.6	11.3	22.1	44.4	22.8	32.8
Jewellery	34	52.4	13.5	14.4	67.1	18.6
Cassette	68.4	11.9	19.7	41.2	22.2	36.6
Motorcycle	87.8	2.5	9.6	75.9	4.2	19.9
Refrigerator	60.5	18.7	20.8	29.6	27.7	42.7
Home Theatre (music system)	-	-	-	38.6	15.8	45.6
Vehicle	76.9	8.4	14.7	62	7.8	30.2

Source: UBoS, UNHS 2012/2013; 2016/2017